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AUTHOR Williamson, Marvel L.
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ABSTRACT

The work content of eight midwestern college and university presidents is defined and described through direct observation of daily activities. This was done as a critical first step in a line of research which can eventually propose effective presidential work behaviors. Besides discovering how time is used, the study finds that due to the volume of input and requests, presidents cannot personally meet most demands and also accomplish organizational success. Concepts identified from the structured and unstructured data led to the development of the Williamson Wall Model of Presidential Work, a framework for future testing of hypotheses about presidential effectiveness. One week of data collection was spent with each of the eight presidents in the final sample. (These eight represent a consent rate of 33% of the potential respondents whose colleges met the study criteria). One of the key outcomes was the conclusion that there is a great deal of work directed to the president that cannot, should not, and must not be done by the president personally, if at all. Proper presidential work should be defined in part as fulfilling the needs that only the president can meet for the organization, with priorities and goals focusing the work. The four themes (or building blocks for presidential work leading to organizational success) resulting from this study are: (1) antecedents (preexisting resources at the school or within the president's personality), (2) aura (power of the presidency), (3) actions (consciously chosen goals), and (4) advancements. Tables are included. Contains 15 references. (Author/SM)

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WHAT DO COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS REALLY DO? AN INSIDE LOOK AT PRESIDENTIAL WORK

by

Marvel L. Williamson, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
The University of Iowa
Iowa City, Iowa

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ASHE ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Texas A&M University
Department of Educational Administration
College Station, TX 77843
(409) 845-0393

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WHAT DO COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS REALLY DO?
AN INSIDE LOOK AT PRESIDENTIAL WORK

Abstract

As a critical first step in a line of research which can eventually propose effective presidential work behaviors, this study defined and described the work content of eight college and university presidents through direct observation of daily activities. In addition to discovering how time was used, it found that due to the volume of input and requests, presidents cannot personally meet most demands and simultaneously accomplish organizational success. The concepts identified from the structured and unstructured data led to the development of the Williamson Wall Model of Presidential Work, a framework for future testing of hypotheses about presidential effectiveness.

WHAT DO COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS REALLY DO? AN INSIDE LOOK AT PRESIDENTIAL WORK

Inadequate role definition and the potential for time misuse can create many frustrations in the presidential administration of colleges and universities. If presidents had unlimited time to oversee, analyze, plan, explore, and reflect, they would not have to prioritize the many requests for attention coming from all possible sources, while simultaneously attempting to achieve proactive goals. However, it is impossible to be an ultimately informed central figure who can handle every problem that presents itself. Time is limited and, therefore, is very valuable.

Improving efficiency is not a sufficient answer, though. Even by using every available minute and producing a high volume of output, there is no guarantee that organizational success will follow. Furthermore, even in a highly efficient system, the fact remains that there may be more work directed at the president than can possibly be accomplished.

Background and Rationale for the Study

Much has been written about what presidents should be doing, but most of it is not research based. The sparse research that is available uses survey and interview methods almost exclusively and primarily deals with presidents' attitudes and opinions about what is or should be occurring and how they perceive issues. To assume that by identifying such perceptions, one has correctly determined what the presidency actually entails is false. Due to the pace of activities and tendency to forget about routine details, much of

the way administrators use time is beyond their own awareness (McMahon, 1984; Haller and Knapp, 1985).

According to the literature, presidents are in a vicious cycle of activity, fearing loss of valuable information. They seek the personal gratification of being in touch with all aspects of the organization, and as a result, let the dictates of others control their work (Cohen and March, 1974). For college or university presidents to feel confident in decision making, they must be reasonably sure of what various groups are thinking and doing. A great deal of time becomes committed to conversation with people who may or may not have significant information, but who want the chance to make their opinions known. As the organization's size increases, the number of possible input sources increases also, making expectations more and more impossible to meet. Information driven presidents have at their mental disposal a great deal of useless trivia which continues to be collected "just in case". The frustrating element is that in retrospect much of this information was not important to the central goals of organization. One outcome of extensive use of verbal information is difficulty with delegating tasks to the extent that experts prescribe. Presidents often cannot simply hand subordinates files to review; the information is in the presidents' minds, tempting them to retain duties due to the time expense of verbal information transfer.

Concomitantly, too much structure in time use supposedly risks jeopardizing relationships with people and access to valuable information. Books like Thriving on Chaos (Peters, 1987) compound the fear that without an "open door policy", which allows people to

stop in without an appointment as their need arises, a message is conveyed that the president is a rigid, out of touch person. Unfortunately, many people have little understanding of presidential work and mistakenly believe that the only person who can speak with authority on their particular problem is the one who sits in the top position. Or perhaps they refuse to deal with anyone but the chief executive and bypass appropriate subordinate channels because they feel a personal need for recognition, thinking that if they can possibly use the time of someone they perceive as important, that somehow makes them important also.

Another dilemma impinging upon the work of presidents relates to the uniqueness of academic institutions. The service orientation and type of employee are primary reasons why tactics useful in for-profit businesses often fail. Faculty and professional staff are hired for their ability to be creative, self motivating thinkers who are driven by ideals. This type of employee does not respond well to rigid task oriented leadership. Furthermore, many view presidents, deans, and departmental chairpersons as people who are there to keep the organization running smoothly so faculty will be able to fulfill educational and societal needs. It is ironic that these people sometimes mistakenly think that presidents are more powerful than they actually are. Much power also lies with those who make policies and control the flow of research money (i.e., the faculty themselves). Decision making about programs and curriculum is heavily participative in nature, and presidents are caught in the role of having to implement and enforce the very rules that faculty

formulated. The tone of the literature about the presidency reveals that the reversal in the academic decision power structure contributes to presidents' feelings of powerlessness, compounded by lack of control over time and inability to predict events. Add to this the slow resolution of issues characterizing academia, and it becomes apparent why presidents can feel frustrated.

In spite of the abundance of survey research, these problems demonstrate a need for direct observation for the purpose of task analysis and description of presidential work content and time use. The few observational research studies in the general field of education have primarily described the work behaviors of public school administrators (Mintzberg, 1973; Wolcott, 1973; Duignan, 1980; Sproull, 1981; Pitner and Ogawa, 1981). None of these studies discovered purposeful patterns of how administrators manage their time. Their picture was instead one of letting time use be determined by the tasks that present themselves, as borne out also by Cohen and March (1974) and Berte and Morse (1985) in their analyses of presidents. Administrators too often rely on chance information systems. Written reports and mail are given low priority. There is a preference for live, verbal interaction. Tasks rarely get finished in one sitting. Days are long. Positive feedback is rare. Organizational success is the most tangible sign of personal administrative success. According to Keller (1983), the variations and unanticipated events which occur in the daily work life of an academic administrator help account for the incrementalistic nature of decision making and time management style. The approach in each situation depends upon the perceived

value of the activity, the urgency, the characteristics of other people involved, and a multitude of other factors.

Prior to confirming whether presidents appropriately use their time to deal with these dilemmas and before prescribing which work is meaningful and important at the presidential level, it is necessary first to validate what the current state of presidential work is. Hypothesis testing without exploring the nature of the issue would be premature, causing conclusions to be nonsignificant or unexplainable and, hence, useless for practical application. This study was of importance, therefore, to establish a valid baseline description of presidential work as it really exists, making it possible to identify variables that may correlate to effective time use and proper role definition.

Unfortunately, it is difficult to obtain accurate work accounts simply by asking people what happens in the course of a day or a year. While they are not usually intentionally deceptive, much of what they do is beyond their awareness or unconsciously distorted (Richard, 1988; Horne and Lupton, 1965). Diaries kept by subjects also fail because details are lost when events happen rapidly.

Furthermore, in answering the question "What is the content of presidential work?", it would be fallacious to think that asking for presidents' opinions, impressions, and attitudes would equal the study of their work. A survey of what musicians feel and think about music is not a study of music. The same is true for understanding the content of administration. To formulate useful theory about the presidency, research must move to a data

collection style Mintzberg (1973) introduced to the field of administration which has long been used by ethnographers, that of direct long term observation and qualitative analysis. Since it is not possible to hold variables constant when dealing with the real work of humans in action without interfering with the outcomes of their methods, theory about which work behaviors presidents use and their effectiveness must be based on research which simultaneously observes multiple variables.

Two types of data can be collected during direct observation. Unstructured data or "field notes" consist of journal entries maintained in an ongoing fashion as events unfold. They are open ended and include anything from detailed descriptions of events, to feelings the observer has, to anecdotes and drawings of the physical environment. Unstructured data reflect multiple intervening variables which escape most types of research. They give meaning to events seen. Structured data, on the other hand, consist of predefined categories of variables describing activities being watched, such as purpose, location, and persons involved.

For exploratory research of this type, the goal is to discover the nature of presidential work, so that follow up studies can correlate variables. Experimental studies can eventually evaluate behaviors hypothesized as superior. However, observational research at the exploratory descriptive level does not propose to alter practice. It may be incorrect to assume, therefore, that a randomly selected sample is necessary, particularly when statistical tests of significance would have no valid use. When using a small sample in an exploratory observational study, it is

better to choose subjects on key characteristics than leave to random chance the hope of acquiring a representative group. A small sample chosen at random is not necessarily trustworthy, and bias error is compounded as the sample size decreases. Of more importance is minimization of the impact of observer presence on the behavior of subjects, the "Hawthorne effect", by conducting nonparticipant observation for extended periods of time in an unobtrusive manner. Concerns about small sample size are buried by the mass of information accumulated during prolonged continuous observation. When the question is "What do presidents really do?", this is the most valid method of data collection. It is false logic to cling to the notion a large sample is necessary for worthwhile exploratory level research, opting for a survey approach only to increase sample size.

Methods

Presidents in the Midwest were targeted for study whose schools met criteria for accreditation and enrollment size, had been founded prior to 1976, had no interim presidents in office, and met the Carnegie Classifications for (1) large public Research Universities I and II and (2) small private Liberal Arts Colleges I and II to better insure sufficient exposure to a variety of institutional conditions. The presidents of 58 colleges and 13 universities met these criteria. The sample was to contain presidents of three colleges and three universities. Two mailings were planned to estimate interest in participating. The first mailing wave contained all 13 university presidents, due to the fewer number of them available, and the 19 qualifying presidents of

colleges within 350 miles of the researcher's home. Within two weeks, the researcher telephoned each presidential office to follow up on the letters and to obtain verbal consent or refusal. Many presidents had standing policies of not participating in research due to the volume of requests received and these candidates probably never saw the introductory letter.

Six college and four university presidents verbally agreed to participate. The consent rate of about 33% was considered excellent for this type of study. One from each group had to be eliminated later due to scheduling difficulties. None of the remaining eight withdrew and each was observed as planned, making a second mailing unnecessary.

Of the eight subjects in the final sample, one was female. Five were presidents of colleges with enrollments between 800-1500 and three were presidents of universities with enrollments of 23,000-35,000. None of the subjects had been a president prior to their current positions, consistent with other studies showing that 85% in general are in their first presidency (Ferrari, 1986). Subjects ranged in age from 49 to 60 years, with a mean age of 54 years. Length of time in office varied from three months to eight years, with a mean of 4.5 years. Two of the eight had never been faculty members, and five had no formal preparation for the presidency. Subjects were guaranteed confidentiality and other rights in writing; the signing of a witnessed informed consent form preceded data collection.

One week of data collection was spent with each president during the fall semester, beginning on Mondays with an interview

about each one's background, work habits, and beliefs about success. The remainder of the day was spent becoming acquainted with the environment, meeting staff, reviewing the appointment calendar for the week, and touring the campus. Observational data collection then ran from Tuesdays through Fridays. Data entry began each morning when the presidents started their first business related activity, regardless of the location. Observation ended whenever they left for home or by 5:30 PM each evening, whichever came first. Events occurring after 5:30 PM were reported by each subject the following morning, were regarded as evening activities, and are not included in the reported results. Observation and data collection were continuous and nonstop, except for activities in which a president or third party requested no observation. The total duration of such activities represented only 0.06% of the observation time and 0.75% of the activities. There was, therefore, virtually unlimited access to private meetings.

Every activity was timed and described as to type, purpose, location, people involved, administrative role, precipitating onset, outcome, feedback, administrative style, and other factors. Field notes were kept and all incoming mail and outgoing correspondence was reviewed. Trips out of town during the week occupied three different days and were observed when possible, but data collected during those periods will not be reported. According to their calendars, these presidents spent about one fourth of their time out of town.

To reduce the "Hawthorne effect", the researcher did not participate in activities, remained in the background out of the

direct vision of subjects whenever possible, and displayed no distracting nonverbal behaviors. As seen during the pilot study, subjects exhibited more signs of being aware of the observer during the first few hours, but gradually became more relaxed and natural. By the second day, these clues of self-consciousness had disappeared. In spite of the admitted potential for altered behavior because of the study in progress, events occurred as scheduled, the purpose and people involved was not affected, phone calls came in an identical fashion as they would have had there been no study, and unexpected events precipitated with their usual unpredictability. All subjects reported that being observed had not caused them to postpone any activities or alter their behavior. If the study did indeed cause behavior to vary, however, it was probably in the direction of inducing more efficiency on the part of subjects and staff.

Structured data were recorded on a portable computer, an innovation valuable for future observational research studies. An internal clocking device automatically timed entries and activities for later analysis. The computer also permitted faster data entry, so more variables could be monitored than would have been possible by hand. It was convenient by virtue of its size and weight, generated print outs of data, allowed the researcher to rearrange and check entries with ease, and permitted data transfer to a main frame computer for statistical analysis. Unlike records kept by hand, recoding information into a new form was unnecessary. This feature alone compensated for the long hours spent observing.

Analysis and Interpretation of Findings

There are two goals in the analysis and interpretation of observational data. First, examination of structured data produces statistics that answer quantifiable questions. Second, a content analysis of the field notes yields explanations that support the statistics. Simply stated, the numerical or structured data tell the "what", while the unstructured data explain more of the "why".

These presidents worked an average of 8.8 day hours and 2.7 evening hours, for a total of 11.5 hours per day. There was no such thing as an evening totally free from work. In spite of working about half an hour less per day on the average, the presidents of the small colleges had a mean of five more activities per day than the university presidents. The mean for all was 73 activities per day before 5:30 PM. The more secretarial and administrative assistants a president had, the fewer activities per day there were ($r=-0.90$ for small colleges presidents; $r=-0.47$ for all eight subjects). There was no relationship between the number of such personnel and the length of the work day, however.

Some activities lasted only a few seconds and some extended on for hours, but the mean duration of each activity was seven minutes, signifying a relentless pace and a frequent change in focus of attention from one area to another. Matching Cohen and March's estimate that 70-80% of a president's day in their study was spent in talk (1974), only 27% of the subjects' time in this study was spent without phone or face to face contact with anyone. Although this represents an average of 2.5 hours per day, each activity in solitude lasted an average of five minutes only.

Extended uninterrupted periods were rare. This was clearly by choice; the subjects preferred a full, well controlled schedule to work time alone, shown by allowing appointments during time previously set aside for desk work, and by wandering around looking for contact when the appointment pace slowed, even when there was a considerable amount of paperwork sitting in the in-basket.

When in town, 42% of their time was spent in the office, 16% elsewhere in the presidential office suite, 22% in other places on campus, and the remaining 20% in transit, at home, or other locations. As the size of the group involved in activities increased, the longer activities lasted. Scheduled meetings and appointments occupied 52% of the day. Although personal maintenance breaks (trips to the coffee pot or rest room, visits to the barber, and so forth) accounted for close to 11% of the average day, these subjects used no time to nap, rest, or daydream, and only one exercised during the work day.

The ability to interact with people effectively in verbal contact was critical. Little information was written down and correspondence had a low priority. Most incoming mail was not seen, and of the 19 items that the staff allowed to reach the president on an average day, rarely was any acted upon immediately. Most of the subjects stated that they hated mail. They personally generated a mean of 3.6 pieces of correspondence per day, half of which were thank you letters, notes of congratulations and ceremonial recognitions. Face to face dialogue and telephone communication were the most important information exchange tools superseding correspondence and written reports because: 1) they permitted instant answers to questions which could in turn be

reacted to immediately making information more current, and 2) the participants felt more intimate and were more likely to speak frankly "off the record" than in letters or memos, which are more susceptible to misinterpretation and legal analysis.

Although the subjects were generally "people instead of paper-oriented", they tended to view people as tasks, in that relationship building was an activity with a more ulterior purpose (developing a financial donor, for example). The presidents did enjoy dealing with people, but were aware of the necessity for small talk, social appearances, and letters of thanks or congratulations as ways of promoting the school.

Table 1 shows how the average day was spent in activities of various purposes. One fourth of their time was spent on ceremonial/public relations/fund raising activities. It was not always easy to distinguish between these, because events frequently served several purposes. For example, a ceremony on campus conferring an honorary degree was built into a reunion for the recipient's family, with lunch provided by the school, during which the president cultivated financial donors. One half of subjects' time went into organizational planning and directing. No time was spent in research or scholarly writing. Two subjects expressed regret over losing touch with their original academic fields.

The most time consuming administrative roles were figurehead, information monitor, and resource allocator. (See Table 2.) Several trends were noted between a subject's tenure in office and certain variables in the content of work. For example, the longer subjects had been presidents, the more time they spent in the

disturbance handler/negotiator role (eta=0.92). A strong curvilinear correlation appeared between the amount of time spent during earlier and later years in office and touring or surveillance activities (managing by "wandering around") (eta=0.95), i.e., less "wandering around" occurred during the second through the fifth years in office.

While in town, contact with people from within the school came at a 2:1 ratio compared to external contacts. The university presidents spent twice as much time (16.3%) with faculty and academic leaders as did the small college presidents (8.8%), but the presidents of the small colleges were in contact with students 6.9% of their time, contrasted with 2.9% of the large university presidents' time. (See Table 3 for a complete listing of persons in contact with the subjects.)

Events were strictly controlled by most presidents and their staffs. Almost three fourths of activities were initiated by the subjects, or agreed to at prescheduled times best for them (see Table 4). This contrasts with Cohen and March's estimate that 70% of contacts in their study were not initiated by presidents (1974). Activities with persons external to the school lasted much longer than those with internal personnel. There were few interruptions or unexpected events. Most unexpected events that did occur were simple interruptions by secretaries with questions of their own, most of which did not need an immediate response. The frequency of secretarial interruptions clearly could have been decreased, in which case only 4% of activities would have met untimely conclusions. Except for desk work, tasks tended to be completed

upon first contact. There was a moderately strong correlation between having an "open door" policy and an increased number of unfinished tasks (r/pb=0.6).

The type of school was not predictive of the presidents' management style. Both task and relationship orientations were seen at small private colleges and at large public research universities. Some subjects exhibited the same style with all persons, while others were congenial in public but almost Machiavellian and quite authoritarian in private, regardless of school category. All were highly delegative and trusted their cabinet members to bring only items to their attentions that merited their involvement.

Subordinates were utilized heavily to produce tangible output on behalf of the presidents. Presidents did not typically take on projects to do themselves, but usually received the credit for work they authorized. Such projects included fact finding, conflict resolution, and writing of speeches, grants, letters, reports, and forms. They made key contacts and presented output and results as their own, but avoided taking on duties that required protracted lengths of time alone to accomplish. To the public or other recipients, it appeared as though the president prepared the product, while the actual writer or developer was in fact someone else. This was standard practice and subordinates seemed to accept this as part of their jobs. The outcome yielded an illusion of presidential capability to the public and distal subordinates that far exceeded what one person could realistically accomplish.

Stated succinctly, the content of these presidents' work was monitoring information, recognizing problems, making decisions, representing the school, leading through change, and maintaining morale and resources. They moved from activity to activity without "carrying baggage" that would require personal responsibility and follow up. Each event could be afforded little preparation time and reached closure with a decision or with progress in a developing relationship. These executives used position and influence power extensively to lead and maximize external opportunities. Their activities demonstrated a unique blend of service and business skills. Much time was devoted to strategic planning and manipulation of events and information to present a positive image of the school to various groups.

Discussion and Outcome Hypotheses

One of the key outcomes of this study, in addition to describing how these presidents spent their time, was the conclusion that there is a great deal of work directed to the president that can not, should not, and must not be done by the president personally, if at all. Through the monitoring of incoming mail, phone calls, and visitors, the study verified that presidents could easily spend the entire work year responding to requests. A reactive president could fill a full time position several times over by simply reading and replying to mail, taking the phone calls, seeing everyone wanting an appointment, accepting invitations to speak, resolving complaints, and representing the school at various meetings. As such, the position would not require a particularly outstanding leader, and for an indefinite

period, could be filled by someone who enjoyed socializing. These opportunities are available in such quantity that some could mistake accomplishing them for work which is more valuable. Use of staff as presidential "surrogates", therefore, emerged as an issue needing further investigation.

Proper presidential work should be defined in part as fulfilling the needs that only the president can meet for the organization. Priorities and goals must clearly focus the work which is accepted. Presidents must foster the illusion of being accessible to everyone, while still agreeing to appointments and meetings only on the their own terms. Abolition of the "open door/open mail/open phone" policy and the development of a staff who is well acquainted with the president's priorities are steps in the right direction for becoming proactive and purposeful in accomplishing meaningful presidential work. Other people must not be allowed to determine what the president's work should be, especially when their problems can be solved instead by sensitive subordinates who screen requests and input, protecting presidents in a manner that still makes them seem available to everyone and concerned about everything. Contrary to some opinions, loss of popularity and isolation of the president from organizational problems need not be the result. Rather, carefully selected methods of contact with various constituencies which are well publicized in advance can actually boost presidential exposure, visibility, and popularity.

Four themes flowed from this study: Antecedents, Aura, Actions, and Advancements. They can be described as building

blocks for presidential work leading to organizational success. Visualizing a wall under construction develops the requisite themes layer by layer, demonstrating the effect of gaps on progress. Too many gaps in the construction of the wall prevent growth into higher levels. (See Figure 1, "Williamson Wall Construct Model of the College and University Presidency".)

Antecedents, those resources preexisting at the school or within the president's own personality and experience, create a foundation for the wall. These conditions enhance the likelihood for insight into opportunities and promote growth through use of assets already in place.

The Aura or power of the presidency adds a second layer, further supports the structure, and legitimizes the Actions. Most presidents in this study worked at being visible and some effectively maximized the usefulness of the presidential aura, which gave them access to information and privileges as described by Fisher in The Power of the Presidency (1984). Some believed that behaving like a president inspired the confidence of others in their abilities. But even for those who tried to appear benign, ordinary, and harmless, the aura of the presidential title itself created an undeniable image of power which was impossible to shake. Subjects were unable to move about in the local area without being recognized. Nonverbal behaviors by people they encountered confirmed that others were acutely aware of the presidential presence and that they were curious about the presidents.

Actions, the third level of the wall, are consciously chosen goals taken on by presidents to insure that areas needing attention

receive it. Actions of this type require administrative and personal skills such as risk taking, strategic planning, leadership, discernment, and vision for the future. By proactively moving forward on priority goals and delegating less critical matters, presidents can accomplish the Advancements which bring about success for the school. Advancements may include success in academic quality, endowment growth, capital improvements, faculty development, affirmative action, enrollment gains, and so forth. These Advancements can themselves serve as Antecedents for further progress into higher levels. Hypotheses based on the model for testing in future studies include questions about maximization of the Aura to open doors of opportunity, critical Antecedents necessary for certain types of Actions, better use of staff to generate output on behalf of the president leaving time for Actions, and proactive versus reactive behaviors.

These findings reveal the necessity for special business skills which may have been minimized in importance by the literature from earlier less competitive times. Colleges and universities are more extensively involved in public relations and marketing than ever before, and presidents invest considerable effort into such activities. Fund raising thoughts permeate events to such an extent that presidents appear to become "jaded" in their outlook. Due to the present state of financial and enrollment problems, presidential work requires concentration on school survival, or at least on how to remain competitive within the academic market. Depending upon whether the school is publicly or privately funded, concern about endowment growth, attraction and

retention of quality students, or bargaining as a quasi-lobbyist with state legislators, all require considerable entrepreneurial ability. It is no longer wise to support either view that the ideal president is an academician or a businessperson. Without understanding both areas, the chances for institutional success decline within the current American higher education climate.

This analysis has called into question findings from previous studies about the work and habits of college and university presidents. Although academia may look to some like an organized anarchy, the composite picture of the chief executive in this study does not support such a description. These presidential subjects were not the disorganized persons portrayed in the literature beset with constant fire fighting, who preside over worthless meetings to satisfy ego needs. Certainly, it would be reasonable to say that even the best presidents in this study were not perfect leaders who knew precisely how to establish priorities and solve problems. One of their greatest dilemmas was deciding which matters coming to their attention were important and which were not. Partly out of a fear of missing something of value and partly out of enjoyment, there was a temptation to overwork and to fill days with activity regardless of the organization's size or needs. Due to the volume of demands, though, they were forced to set limits and delegate. By utilizing their Antecedent resources, by capitalizing on their presidential power and influence, and by proactively choosing time and work priorities, they were able to lead satisfying changes and Advancements in their colleges and universities.

Table 1. Purposes of Activities

		Mean Percent of Time per Day
Organization Maintenance:	Planning	26.0
	Directing	26.6
	Evaluating	5.4
Ceremonies, Fund Raising, Public Relations		21.4
Self Maintenance:	Professional	0.4
	Personal	11.3
Personnel Maintenance:	Hiring	2.4
	Developing, Evaluating	3.5
	Terminating	0.3
Student Assistance		2.8
		100%

Table 2. Roles during Administrative Activities
(categories based on Mintzberg, 1973)

		Mean Percent of Time per Day Spent in Each Role
Interpersonal:	Figurehead	21
	Leader	10
	Liaison	6
Informational:	Monitor	20
	Disseminator	10
	Spokesperson	3
Decisional:	Resource Allocator	14
	Disturbance Handler/ Negotiator	11
	Entrepreneur	5
		100%

Table 3. People with Whom the Presidents Came into Contact

	Percent of Time Per Day	Mean Duration of Each Activity (Minutes)
Alone out of interpersonal contact	26.8	5.4
Secretary, Presidential Staff	5.2	1.4
Vice Presidents, Provosts, Cabinet Members	19.3	12.2
Academic Deans, Department Chairs	3.3	20.0
Faculty	8.9	17.3
Staff	2.3	4.5
Students	5.3	17.0
Other Internal Personnel	0.01	0.7
Board of Trustees or Regents Members	3.5	11.9
Governmental Officials	1.2	9.6
Major Donors or Business Executives	5.0	22.4
Minor Donors or Business Executives	0.8	23.8
News Media Personnel	1.3	25.6
Alumni	0.1	3.5
Other External Persons	7.0	12.0
Nonbusiness Persons (e.g., family)	3.9	18.5
Various Combinations of People Types	6.1	18.0
	100%	

Table 4. Who Initiated Activities

	Percent of Activities Per Day	Mean Duration of Each Activity (Minutes)
President	72.1	7.2
Proximal Subordinate	19.3	4.5
Distal Subordinate	4.4	11.4
External Person with Business Relevant to the President	3.6	20.9
External Person with Business More Suited to a Subordinate	0.4	21.3
Nonbusiness Person	0.2	2.4
	100%	

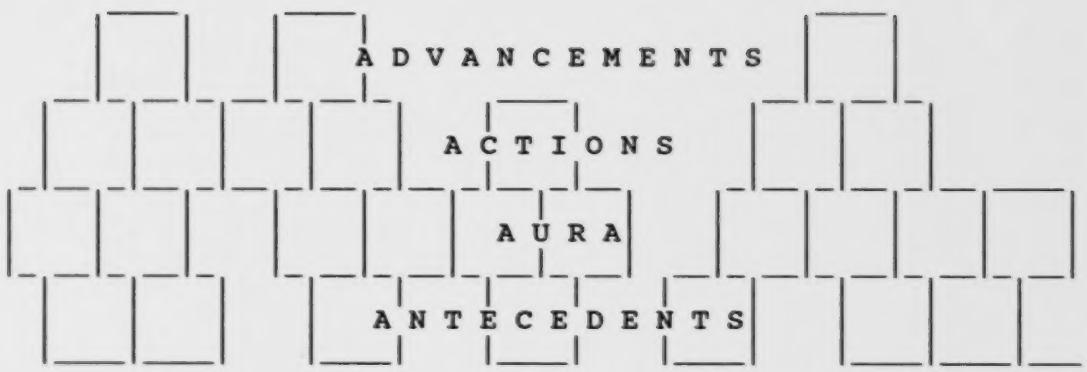

Figure 1. Williamson Wall Construct Model of the College and University Presidency

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